

# Status of Draft ANSI X9.44 (& More)

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## Outline

- ANSI X9.44 update
- Security proof background
- Scheme details



## ANSI X9.44

- **Key establishment schemes based on the integer factorization problem**
  - Key transport and key agreement
  - RSA algorithm; also Rabin-Williams?
- **Companion to ANSI X9.31 for signatures, ANSI X9.42/.63 for discrete logarithm / elliptic curve problem**
- **Along with other X9 documents, basis for NIST key management scheme FIPS**



## Design Choices

- **Encryption schemes**
  - Primitives and “encoding methods”
- **Key transport schemes**
- **Key agreement schemes**



## Primary Methods

- **PKCS #1 v1.5 encryption**
  - 1991, no security proof, widely deployed
- **RSA-OAEP**
  - 1994, loose security proof, in some standards, not deployed
- **RSA-KEM, et al.**
  - 2001 (and previous), tight security proofs, brand new



## Project Evolution

- **RSA-OAEP in drafts through May 2001**
- **PKCS #1 v1.5 added in June 2001 to reflect practice, esp. SSL/TLS, but not for use with AES**
- **TLS working group decides in August 2001 to use PKCS #1 v1.5 with AES**
  - NIST draft guideline reflects decision (TLS\_RSA\_WITH\_AES\_128\_CBC\_SHA)



## Current Content

- **Encryption schemes:**
  - PKCS #1 v1.5
  - RSA-OAEP
- **Key transport schemes:**
  - One-pass with one public key
    - reflects S/MIME “recipientInfo”
- **Key agreement schemes:**
  - Multiple-pass with one public key, key confirmation
    - reflects SSL/TLS handshake



## Related Efforts

	PKCS #1 v1.5	RSA- OAEP	RSA- KEM	Other
PKCS #1 v2.0	X	X		
IEEE Std 1363-2000		X		
NESSIE Phase 2		X		
CRYPTREC Eval.		X		
ISO 18033-2 Draft		X	X	RSA- OAEP+



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## The Adversary

- An adversary is an algorithm that tries to *break* a cryptographic scheme, i.e., solve a problem that undermines the security of the scheme.
- Examples of such problems:
  - Find the plaintext corresponding to a ciphertext in an encryption scheme
  - Find the underlying secret key used to encrypt messages
  - Find the inverse of an element with respect to a function that is assumed to be one-way
  - Given a one-way function, find two elements with the same image (a *collision*)



## Goals of Adversary

For asymmetric schemes, two kinds of security goals are normally considered:

- **Indistinguishability of encryptions (IND)**
  - Given two messages and the encryption of one of the messages (the *target ciphertext*), it is hard to determine which message is encrypted
- **Non-malleability (NM)**
  - Given a target ciphertext  $y$ , it is hard to find another ciphertext  $y'$  such that the corresponding plaintexts are “meaningfully related”



## The Strength of the Adversary

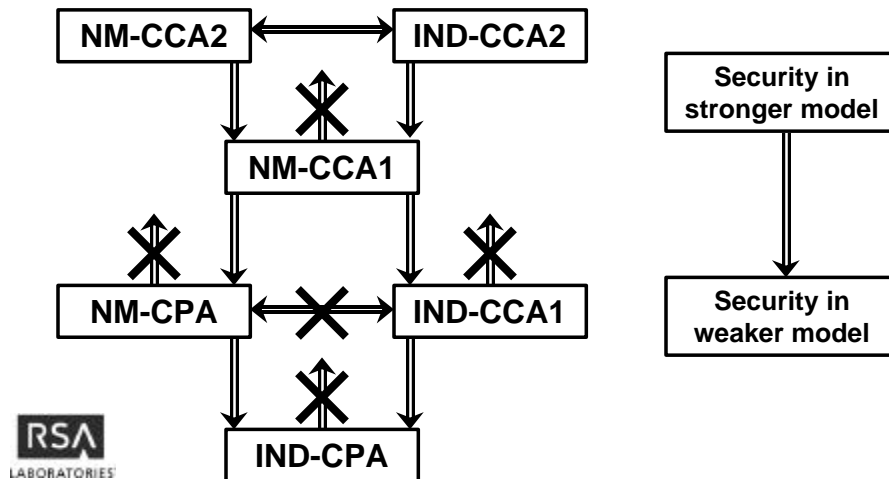
Depending on whether the adversary has access to an oracle performing private key operations, we obtain three basic levels of adversary strength:

- **Chosen Plaintext Attack (CPA, offline attack)**
  - The adversary can only encrypt messages
- **Non-adaptive Chosen Ciphertext Attack (CCA1)**
  - The adversary has access to a decryption oracle until, but not after, it is given the target ciphertext
- **Adaptive Chosen Ciphertext Attack (CCA2)**
  - The adversary has unlimited access to a decryption oracle, *except that the oracle rejects the target ciphertext*
    - The CCA2 model is very general – in practice, adversaries are much weaker than a full-strength CCA2 adversary
    - Yet, many adversaries are too strong to fit into CCA1



## Six Attack Models

The implications between the attack models are as follows:



## Security Arguments

Security arguments can be divided into different categories, ranging from the strongest to the weakest:

- **Existence of stringent security proof**
  - We can *prove* that the scheme is secure under certain assumptions
- **Heuristic security arguments**
  - We have no proof of security, but we can give evidence that the scheme is hard to break
  - Security claims on symmetric ciphers and cryptographic hash functions belong typically to this category
- **Ad hoc arguments**
  - “The scheme is secure because there is no known attack”

# Assumptions

Given a stringent security proof, there are a variety of possible assumptions on the underlying components, ranging from the strongest to the weakest:

- No assumptions are needed
  - The security proof requires no nontrivial assumptions
- A certain mathematical problem is hard
  - To break the scheme, you must solve the underlying problem
- Some components are assumed to have “ideal” properties
  - Examples: Random oracle model; Generic group model
- Unconventional restrictions are put on the adversary
  - The adversary is prohibited from performing certain operations



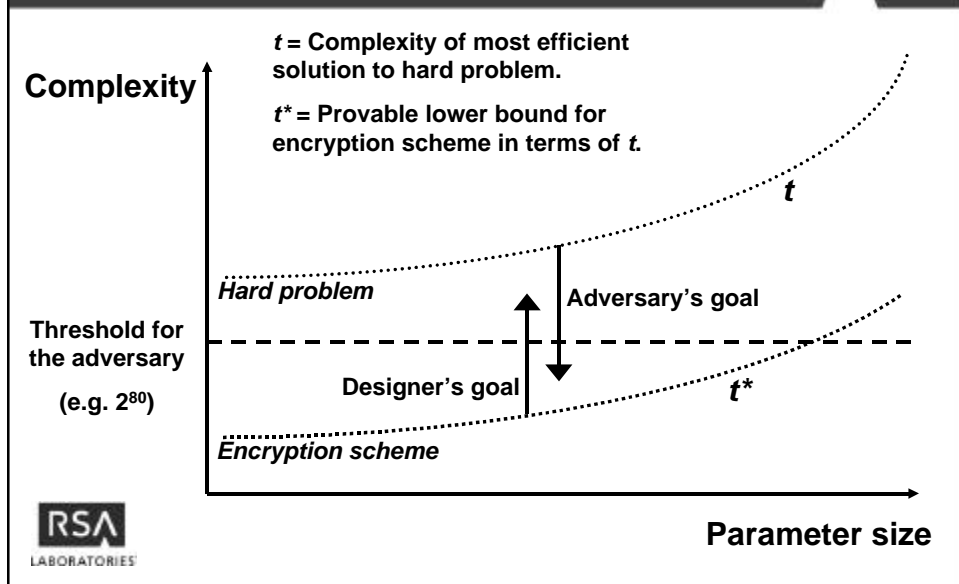
# Hard Problem

- A typical security proof for an asymmetric encryption scheme  $ES$  translates a successful attack into a solution to an underlying hard problem  $P$  (e.g., the RSA problem).
- Typical assumption:  
 $P$  cannot be solved with probability  $\epsilon$  within time  $t$
- Desired consequence:  
 $ES$  cannot be broken with probability  $\epsilon^*$  within time  $t^*$ , where  
 $t^* / t$  is as large as possible;  
 $\epsilon^* / \epsilon$  is as small as possible.
- The better  $t^*$  and  $\epsilon^*$ , the *tighter* security proof
- The stronger attack model (e.g., CCA2 instead of CCA1), the smaller  $t^*$  and the larger  $\epsilon^*$  (if proof even exists)





## Diagram of Provable Security



## Quality of Security Reduction

- For a security proof to apply to practical parameters, we typically need

$$t^* \approx t$$

$$\epsilon^* \approx \epsilon$$

- Proofs tend to have loose reductions that give useless security guarantees in practice
- Yet, the very *existence* of a security proof with bounds polynomial in  $t$  indicates that the algorithm design is sound
  - An attack is translated into *one* solution to the underlying problem – not necessarily the most efficient solution
  - The derived solution uses the adversary only as a black box, which may leave room for further optimizations

## Summary

- Four parameters need to be taken into account when analyzing a security proof:
- The challenge for the adversary
  - IND, NM, ...
- Strength of the adversary
  - CPA, CCA1, CPA2, ...
- Assumptions on the underlying primitives
  - Hard mathematical problem, ideal components, ...
- Quality of security reduction (in case there are underlying nontrivial assumptions)
  - Tight, adequate, loose



## Ideal Properties of a Proof

- The challenge for the adversary should be as *easy* as possible
- The adversary should be as *strong* as possible
- The assumptions should be as *weak* as possible
- Quality of security reduction should be as *good* as possible



# Security Proof Template

Assume **ASSUMPTIONS** on underlying primitive(s)  
Then **SCHEME** is secure in **MODEL**  
against a **CHALLENGE** – **ATTACK** adversary  
with **TIME bound** and **SUCCESS bound**  
given **ADDITIONAL constraints**

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**Example** Assume impossible to invert RSA with prob.  $\epsilon$  within time  $t$   
Then **RSA-OAEP** is secure in **the random oracle model**  
against an **IND** – **CCA2** adversary  
with **running time at most  $t/2 - O(q^2)$**  and **desired success probability at least  $4\sqrt{\epsilon}$**   
given **at most  $q$  oracle queries**



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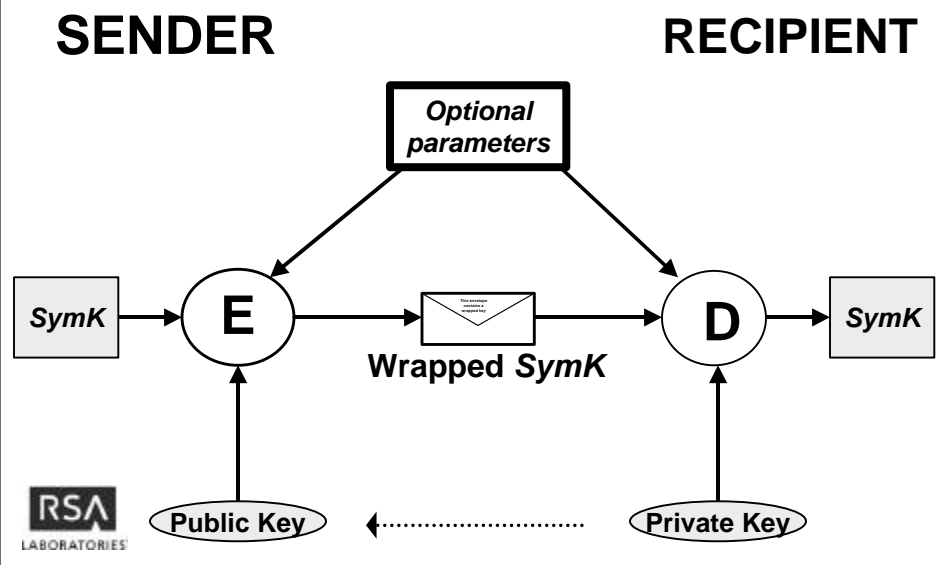


## Key Establishment Schemes

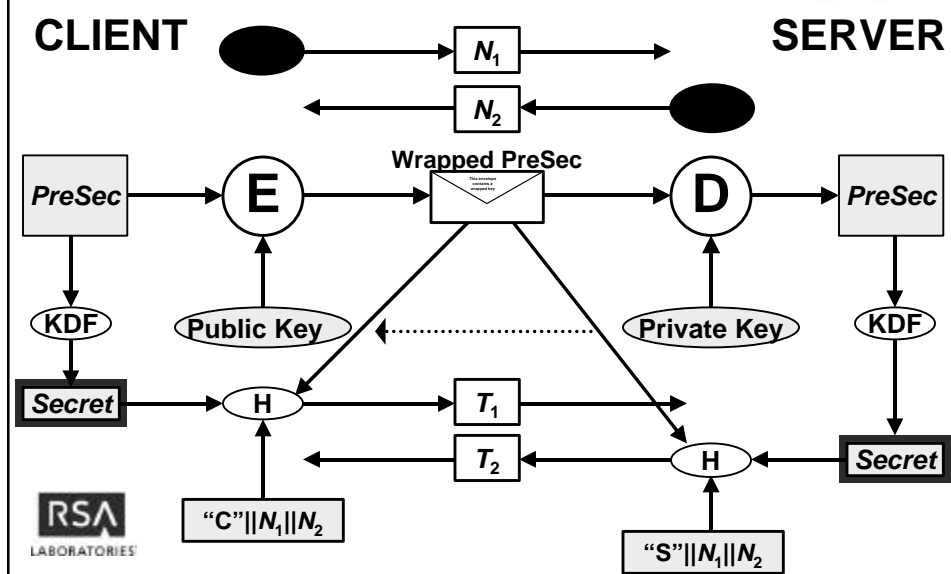
- The goal in our setting is one of the following:
  - To transport a key from one entity to another (key transport)
  - To enable two (or more) entities to agree on a key (key agreement)
- Focus on two common schemes:
  - Key transport: Encrypt key with recipient's public key
  - Key agreement: Encrypt key material with recipient's public key; derive key from key material, nonces
- Security depends on underlying encryption scheme



## Generic Key Transport Model



## Generic Key Agreement Model



## Security Requirements

- For generic key transport, underlying encryption scheme should (ideally) be IND-CCA2
  - Wrapped SymK should not reveal information about SymK, given access to decryption oracle at other points
- For generic key agreement, underlying “key encapsulation” should be IND-CCA2
  - (Wrapped PreSec,  $T_1$ ) should not reveal information about Secret, given access to decryption oracle at other points
  - Freshness, etc. are also important

## Three RSA-Based Encryption Schemes

- PKCS #1 v1.5 RSA encryption
- RSA-OAEP
- RSA-KEM (“simple RSA”) + DEM

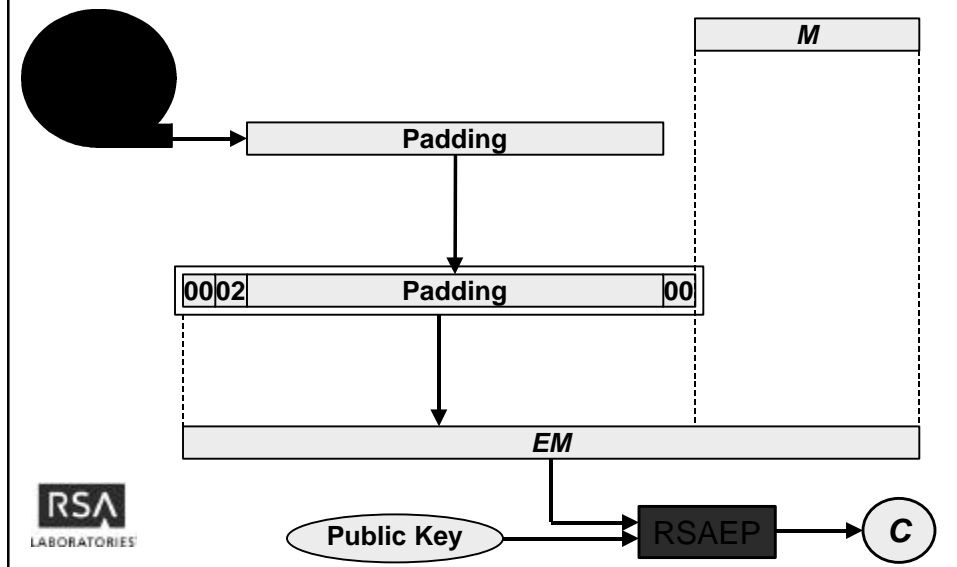


## RSA-PKCS #1 v1.5

- Introduced in 1991 in PKCS #1
- *De facto* standard for RSA encryption and key transport
  - Appears in protocols such as TLS
- No security proof exists
  - Yet, no fatal attack against the scheme so far



## RSA-PKCS #1 v1.5 Encryption



## RSA-PKCS #1 v1.5 Analysis

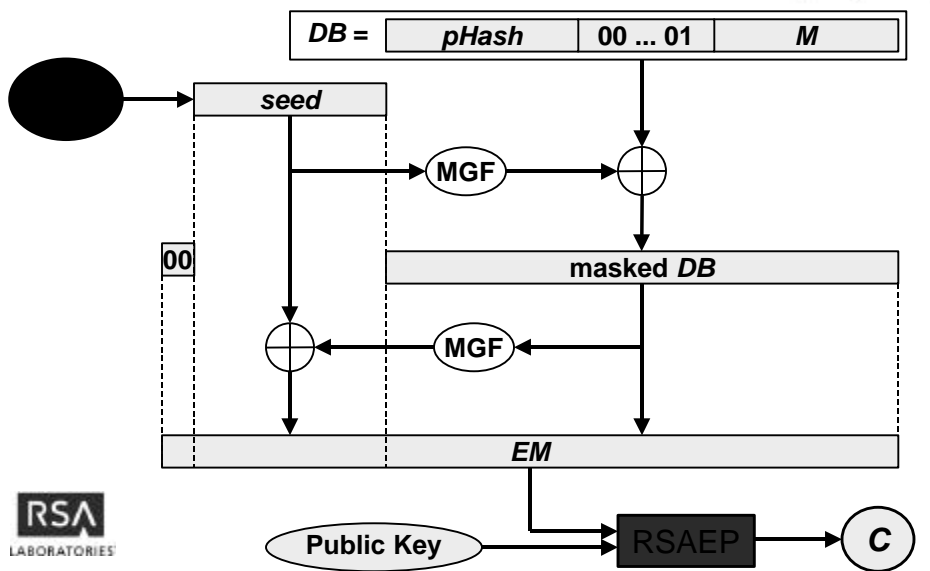
- **Attack against low-exponent RSA when very long messages are encrypted**
  - Attack applies if large parts of a plaintext is known or if similar messages are encrypted with the same public key
  - Mounted by Coppersmith et al. (1996); improvements by Coron et al. (2000)
  - Restrictions on the size of the plaintext help thwart attack
  - Not an issue in key agreement protocols
- **Chosen ciphertext attack (“Million Message Attack”)**
  - Requires a decryption oracle that reports whether a given ciphertext is valid or not
  - For a 1024-bit modulus, the attack requires about one million decryption queries
  - Mounted by Bleichenbacher (1998)
  - Attack is thwarted if ciphertext validity is not revealed, as in TLS

# RSA-OAEP

- Asymmetric encryption scheme combining RSA with the OAEP encoding method
- OAEP was invented by Mihir Bellare and Phillip Rogaway in 1994
  - Additional enhancements by Don B. Johnson and Stephen M. Matyas in 1996
- Already widely adopted in standards
  - IEEE Std 1363-2000
  - ANSI X9.44 draft
  - PKCS #1 v2.0 and v2.1 draft



## RSA-OAEP Encryption





## RSA-OAEP Security

- RSA-OAEP is provably secure against IND-CCA2 in the random oracle model
  - Fujisaki, Okamoto, Pointcheval, and Stern (2000)
- Assume that the following is true:
  - The RSA encryption primitive cannot be inverted with probability  $\epsilon$  within time  $t$
- Then the following holds:
  - RSA-OAEP cannot be broken with prob.  $\epsilon^*$  within time  $t^*$ , where
$$\epsilon^* \approx 4\sqrt{\epsilon};$$
$$t^* = t / 2 - O(q^2)$$

( $q$  is the number of oracle queries)
- Unfortunately, the reduction is not tight



## More on RSA-OAEP

- Bellare and Rogaway proved that RSA-OAEP is IND-CCA1 secure and conjectured IND-CCA2 security
- Shoup observed that a general IND-CCA2 proof for OAEP combined with any trapdoor function cannot be obtained
  - In general, the security of  $f$ -OAEP can only be related to the hardness of *partially* invert the underlying trapdoor function  $f$
- Fujisaki, Okamoto, Pointcheval, and Stern demonstrated that the specific combination RSA-OAEP is IND-CCA2 secure
  - Unfortunately, security bounds are weaker than in the Bellare-Rogaway IND-CCA1 proof

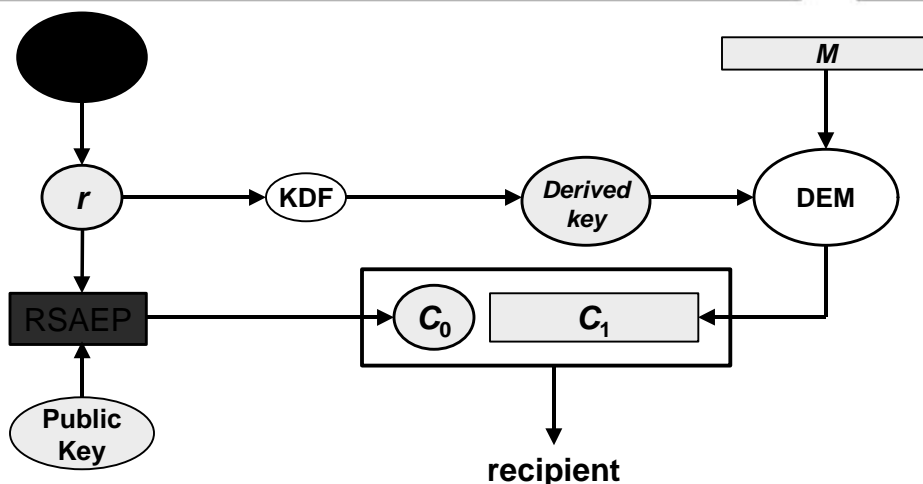


## RSA-KEM+DEM

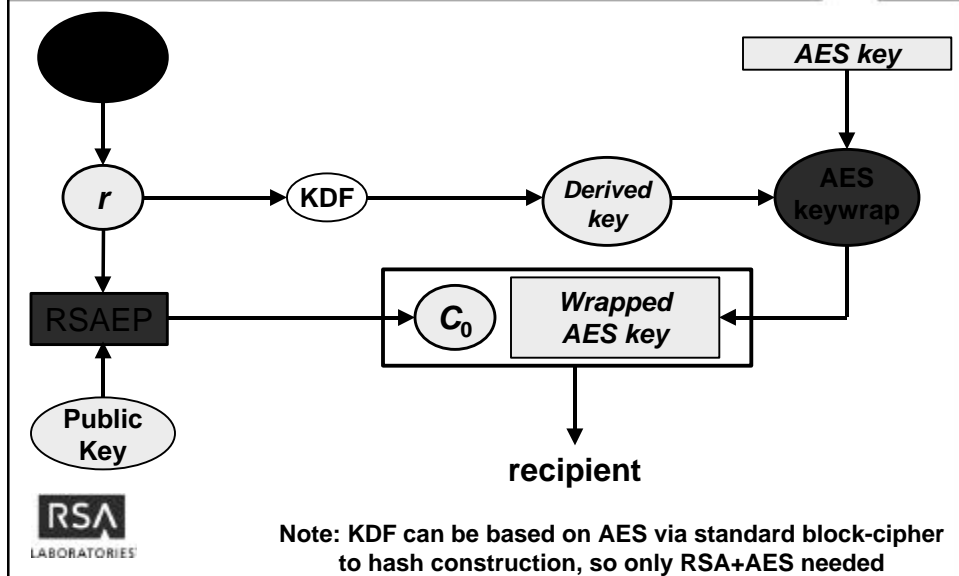
- KEM = Key Encapsulation Mechanism
- DEM = Data Encapsulation Mechanism
- Construction goes back (at least) to Zheng and Seberry in 1992 and Bellare and Rogaway in 1993. Further development by Victor Shoup
  - RSA-REACT is a variant by Okamoto and Pointcheval
- RSA-KEM (“Simple RSA”) generates a random integer  $r$ , derives a symmetric encryption key from  $r$  via a key derivation function (KDF), and encrypts  $r$  with RSA
- DEM encrypts a message  $M$  with (e.g.) AES using the derived key
  - DEM can be combined with a keyed MAC of  $M$ , where the key is derived from  $r$ . The combination is denoted DEM1
  - If  $M$  is key material, DEM can be AES key wrap



## RSA-KEM Encryption



## RSA-KEM Key Wrap



## RSA-KEM Security

- RSA-KEM has a tight security, given the random oracle assumption on the KDF; we have

$$\epsilon^* \approx \epsilon;$$

$$t^* = t - O(q)$$

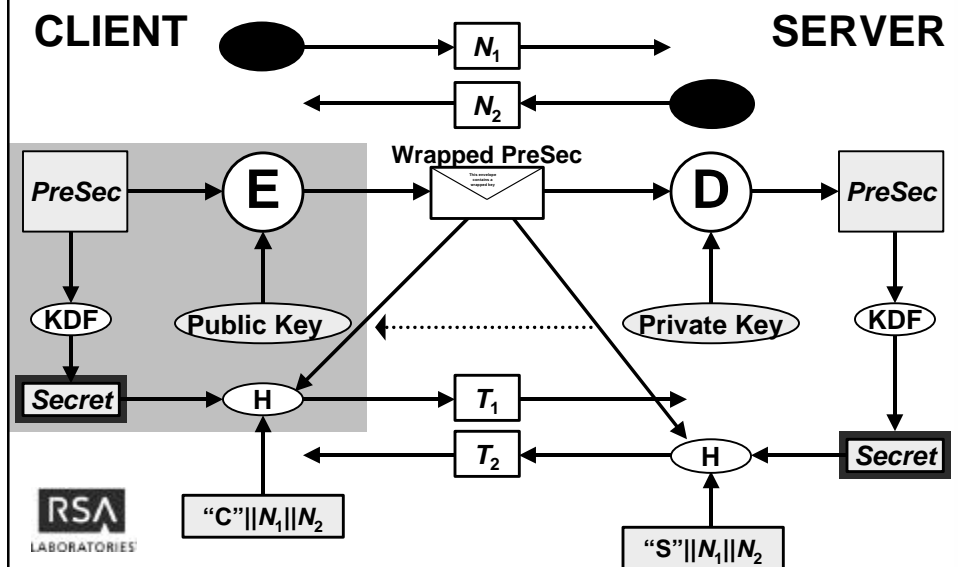
- Reduction is linear in terms of the number of random oracle queries
- Security proof can be extended to RSA-KEM+DEM1 with the security expressed tightly in terms of the hardness of RSA and the security of the symmetric encryption and MAC algorithms

## PKCS #1 v1.5 as a KEM

- RSA-KEM “encapsulates” keys as
  - $K = \text{KDF}(r)$ ,  $c = f_{\text{RSA}}(r)$ ,  $r$  random
- PKCS #1 v1.5 (P1) can do so as
  - $K = \text{KDF}(r)$ ,  $y = f_{\text{P1}}(r)$ ,  $c = (y, H(y, r))$ ,  $r$  random
- Claim: P1-KEM has tight security under the “Gap-P1” assumption
  - Hard to invert  $f_{\text{P1}}$  given a P1 “decision” oracle
    - Decision oracle indicates whether  $(y, r)$  is a valid P1 pair, i.e.,  $y = f_{\text{P1}}(r)$
  - TLS handshake using PKCS #1 v1.5 actually based on P1-KEM — so has tight security proof
    - $K$  derived from Secret,  $y = \text{Wrapped PreSec}$ ,  $H = T_1$ ,  $r = \text{PreSec}$



## Generic Key Agreement Model



## Conclusion

- ANSI X9.44 draft moving along to guide and reflect practice
- Goal: consider what's in use, what can be proved
- RSA-KEM “key encapsulation” an alternate approach, after PKCS #1 v1.5, RSA-OAEP
- New security claims for PKCS #1 v1.5 key encapsulation, as in TLS



## Backup Slides



## Indistinguishability (IND)

- **Intuition:**
  - Given two messages and the encryption of one of the messages (the target ciphertext), it is hard to determine which message is encrypted
- **The IND adversary works in two steps.**
  - After step 1, the adversary outputs two messages  $x_0, x_1$
  - Let  $b = 0$  or  $1$  with equal probability. Form a ciphertext  $y$  by encrypting  $x_b$  and give  $y$  to the adversary
  - After step 2, the adversary outputs a bit  $b'$  that she believes equals  $b$
  - The adversary is successful if  $b = b'$ 
    - This means that she is able to distinguish between encryptions of  $x_0$  and  $x_1$



## Non-Malleability (NM)

- **Intuition:**
  - Given a target ciphertext  $y$ , it is hard to find another ciphertext  $y'$  such that the corresponding plaintexts are “meaningfully related”
- **The NM adversary works in two steps.**
  - After step 1, the adversary outputs two messages  $x_0, x_1$
  - Let  $b = 0$  or  $1$  with equal probability. Form a ciphertext  $y$  by encrypting  $x_b$  and give  $y$  to the adversary
  - After step 2, the adversary outputs a binary relation  $R$  and a ciphertext  $y'$
  - Let  $x'$  be the decryption of  $y'$ . The adversary is successful if  $R(x', x_b)$  is true and  $R(x', x_{1-b})$  is false



## NM Security $\Rightarrow$ IND Security

- Let A be an IND adversary. Define an NM adversary B as follows
  - After step 1, A outputs two messages  $x_0, x_1$ 
    - B outputs the same messages
  - Let  $b = 0$  or  $1$  with equal probability. Form a ciphertext  $y$  by encrypting  $x_b$  and give  $y$  to B
    - B passes  $y$  on to A
  - After step 2, A outputs a bit  $b'$ 
    - B forms  $x' = x_b + 1$ , encrypts  $x'$  to the ciphertext  $y'$ , and outputs  $(y, R)$ , where  $R(u, v)$  is true if  $u = v + 1$
- B is successful if A is successful
  - If  $b = b'$ , then  $x' = x_b + 1$  and  $x' \neq x_{1-b} + 1$



## IND and NM Example

In “Pure RSA”, a plaintext  $x$  is encrypted as  $y = x^e \pmod{N}$

Pure RSA does not satisfy the IND or NM criteria:

- NM is violated: Given a ciphertext  $y$ , the ciphertext  $y' = yk^e \pmod{N}$  has the property that the corresponding plaintexts  $x$  and  $x'$  satisfy  $x' = xk \pmod{N}$ 
  - This observation exploits the underlying mathematical structure of RSA
- IND is violated: It is easily checked whether or not a certain ciphertext is the encryption of a certain message.
  - This is true for *any* deterministic scheme and also translates into an NM attack
- Conclusion: RSA in itself does not provide any security
  - Yet, it may well be useful as a component in a larger scheme!



## NM-CCA2 $\Leftrightarrow$ IND-CCA2

- NM  $\Rightarrow$  IND is always true.
- For the other implication, let B be an NM-CCA2 adversary. Define an IND-CCA2 adversary A as follows.
  - After step 1, B outputs two messages  $x_0, x_1$ 
    - A outputs the same messages
  - Let  $b = 0$  or  $1$  with equal probability. Form a ciphertext  $y$  by encrypting  $x_b$  and give  $y$  to A
    - A passes  $y$  on to B
  - After step 2, B outputs a ciphertext  $y'$  and a relation  $R$ 
    - A sends  $y'$  to the decryption oracle (this is only possible in CCA2, not in CCA1!) and obtains a plaintext  $x'$
    - If  $R(x', x_0)$  is true, then A outputs  $x_0$ . Else, A outputs  $x_1$
- A is successful if B is successful



## Random oracle model

- A random oracle assumption on a function  $H : X \rightarrow Y$  means that an adversary cannot compute or even predict the value of  $H(x)$  for any  $x$  :
  - To compute  $H(x)$ , the adversary sends  $x$  to a *random oracle*.
  - The oracle responds with a value chosen at random (typically uniformly) from the set  $Y$ .
  - The chosen value is independent from earlier queries and responses.
- In practice, a fixed function  $h$  cannot be interpreted as a random oracle.
  - Outputs are fixed, not random.
- However, the assumption is useful in that it restricts the model to generic attacks not exploiting the inner structure of  $H$ .





## A more realistic oracle model?

- Suppose  $H$  is randomized;  $H$  takes as input an element  $x$ , generates a random  $r$ , and outputs  $y = H'(r, x)$  with  $H'$  fixed.
- Introduce an *inversion oracle* that finds  $r$  such that  $y = H'(r, x)$  for inputs  $x$  and  $y$ .
- Drawback: If  $H'$  is hard to invert in practice, the inversion oracle cannot be simulated, as opposed to random oracles.
  - The security can only be reduced to the hardness of solving an underlying problem *given* an inversion oracle.
- Possible advantages:
  - $H$  is a fixed (randomized) function even within the model.
  - The problem of inverting  $H'$  might be “independent” from the underlying mathematical problem – solving one of the problems may not help in solving the other.
- Model introduced by Gennaro, Halevi, and Rabin.



## Plaintext awareness

- A scheme with IND-CPA security is *plaintext aware* (PA) if an adversary cannot form a valid ciphertext without the corresponding plaintext being derivable from the oracle queries and responses.
  - The adversary has access to an encryption oracle and random oracles but no decryption oracle.
- PA implies IND-CCA2 security.
  - Decryption queries give no information since the adversary already “knows” the plaintext.
- Also, IND-CCA2 does *not* imply PA.
  - In an IND-secure scheme, the public key may leak a valid ciphertext without leaking the corresponding plaintext.
- PA makes sense only in the random oracle model.
  - In the standard model, the adversary can encrypt a plaintext and then “forget” it.



## OAEP Parameters and Options

- **Encoding parameters**
  - Often empty, but other possibilities exist
- **Secure hash function**
  - Applied to the encoding parameters to produce a string *pHash*
  - Provides plaintext awareness
- **Mask generation function (MGF)**
  - Based on a secure hash function (preferably the one applied to the encoding parameters)
  - If the MGF is instantiated by a random oracle, the encoded message is (almost) uniformly random and independent from the original plaintext



## RSA-OAEP+

- OAEP+ is an adaptation of OAEP introduced by Victor Shoup, replacing "*pHash*" with a hash of a string containing the plaintext and the seed
- OAEP+ can be combined with any secure trapdoor function, whereas OAEP is provably secure only with RSA and Rabin
- The security reduction for RSA-OAEP+ is better than that for RSA-OAEP; we have
$$\epsilon^* \approx \epsilon;$$
$$t^* = t - O(q^2)$$
- Yet, this is still not tight; the time bound is quadratic in the number of queries



## SAEP(+)

- SAEP is a padding method consisting of the first "Feistel round" of OAEP. SAEP+ is derived from OAEP+ in the same manner
  - SAEP introduced by Johnson and Matyas in the early 90s
  - SAEP+ designed by Boneh in 2000
- Rabin-SAEP+ has a *tight* reduction that is *linear* in the number of queries (i.e.,  $t^* = t - O(q)$ )
  - Yet, Rabin schemes are vulnerable to implementation weaknesses that may leak the entire private key
- RSA-SAEP+ has a security reduction roughly equivalent to that of RSA-OAEP



## RSA-KEM+DEM for Key Transport

- RSA-KEM produces a key that can be used to encrypt data
  - Suitable in some situations, but not always
  - Gives a ciphertext overhead of a multiple of 128 bits (in the case of AES) compared to e.g. RSA-OAEP when the message is small
  - Not appropriate in multiparty situations where the same data should be distributed to many entities
    - The same  $r$  cannot be used more than once
- RSA-KEM+DEM can also be used to encrypt a previously generated key
  - Solves the multiparty problem
  - Fits nicely into existing protocols where the secret key is generated outside the PKE module
  - Yet, still gives ciphertext overhead compared to RSA-OAEP

